

1 Legacy and Emerging Perfluoroalkyl Substances Are Important
2 Drinking Water Contaminants in the Cape Fear River Watershed of
3 North Carolina

4 Legacy and emerging perfluoroalkyl substances are important drinking
5 water contaminants in the Cape Fear River Watershed of North Carolina

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31 **Abstract**

32 Long-chain ~~per- and polyfluoroalkyl~~perfluoroalkyl substances (PFASs) are being replaced by
33 short-chain PFASs and fluorinated alternatives. For ten ~~traditionally studied~~legacy PFASs and
34 seven recently discovered perfluoroalkyl ether carboxylic acids (PFECAs), we report (1)
35 occurrence in the Cape Fear River (CFR) watershed, (2) fate in ~~drinking~~water treatment
36 processes, and (3) adsorbability on powdered activated carbon (PAC). In the headwater region of
37 the CFR basin, PFECAs were not detected in the raw water of a drinking water treatment plant
38 (DWTP), but concentrations of ~~legacy traditionally studied~~PFASs were high. The US
39 Environmental Protection Agency's lifetime health advisory level (70 ng/L) for perfluorooctane
40 sulfonic acid and perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) was exceeded on 57 of 127 sampling days. In
41 raw water of a DWTP downstream of a PFAS manufacturer, the mean concentration of
42 perfluoro-2-propoxypropanoic acid (PFPrOPrA), a replacement for PFOA, was 631 ng/L (n=37).
43 Six other PFECAs were detected with three exhibiting chromatographic peak areas up to 15
44 times that of PFPrOPrA. At this DWTP, PFECA removal by coagulation, ozonation,
45 biofiltration, and disinfection was negligible. PFAS adsorbability on PAC increased with
46 increasing chain length. Replacing one CF₂ group with an ether oxygen decreased PFAS affinity
47 for PAC, while ~~replacing replacement of additional CF₂ groups with ether oxygens~~did not lead
48 to further affinity changes.

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52 Introduction

53 Per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFASs) are extensively used in the production of plastics,
54 water/stain repellents, firefighting foams and food-contact paper coatings. The widespread
55 occurrence of PFASs in drinking water sources is closely related to the presence of point sources
56 such as industrial sites, military fire training areas, civilian airports, and wastewater treatment
57 plants.¹ Until 2000, long-chain perfluoroalkyl sulfonic acids ($C_nF_{2n+1}SO_3H$, $n \geq 6$, PFSA) and
58 perfluoroalkyl carboxylic acids ($C_nF_{2n+1}COOH$, $n \geq 7$, PFCAs) long-chain PFASs, such as
59 perfluorocarboxylic acids (PFCAs) with 7 or more carbon atoms and perfluorosulfonic acids
60 (PFSA) with 6 or more carbon atoms, were predominantly used.² Accumulating evidence about
61 ecotoxicological-the ecological persistence and human health effects³⁻⁴ associated with exposure
62 to long-chain PFASs^{3,4} has led to increased regulatory attention. Recently the U.S.
63 Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) established a lifetime health advisory level (HAL)
64 of 70 ng/L for the sum of perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) and perfluorooctane sulfonic acid
65 (PFOS) concentrations in drinking water.^{5,6} Over the last decade, production of long-chain
66 PFASs has declined in Europe and North America, and manufacturers are moving towards short-
67 chain PFASs and fluorinated alternatives.⁷⁻¹⁰ Some fluorinated alternatives were recently
68 identified,^{8,11} but others remain unknown¹²⁻¹⁴ because they are either proprietary or
69 manufacturing byproducts.

70 One group of fluorinated alternatives, perfluoroalkyl ether carboxylic acids (PFECAs), was
71 recently discovered in the Cape Fear River (CFR) downstream of a PFAS manufacturing
72 facility.¹¹ Identified PFECAs included perfluoro-2-methoxyacetic acid (PFMOAA), perfluoro-3-
73 methoxypropanoic acid (PFMOPrA), perfluoro-4-methoxybutanoic acid (PFMOBA), perfluoro-
74 2-propoxypropanoic acid (PFPrOPrA), perfluoro(3,5-dioxahexanoic) acid (PFO2HxA),
75 perfluoro(3,5,7-trioxaoctanoic) acid (PFO3OA) and perfluoro(3,5,7,9-tetraoxadecanoic) acid
76 (PFO4DA) (Table S1 and Figure S1 in supporting information (SI)). The ammonium salt of
77 PFPrOPrA is a known PFOA alternative¹³ that has been produced since 2010 with the trade
78 name “GenX”.¹⁵ According to the manufacturer, the ether oxygen enables “very rapid
79 bioelimination”¹⁵; however, eExcept for the very few studies (most by the
80 manufacturer) PFPrOPrA data reported by the manufacturer,¹⁶⁻²⁰ little information is available
81 known about the pharmacokinetic behavior, toxicity, or environmental fate and transport of

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PFECAs. To the knowledge of the authors, the only other published PFECA occurrence data are for PFPrOPrA in Europe and China,²¹ and no published data are available on the fate of PFECAs during water treatment.

The strong C-F bond makes PFASs refractory to abiotic and biotic degradation,²² and most water treatment processes are ineffective for legacy PFAS removal.²³⁻²⁸ Processes capable of removing PFECAs and PFASs include nanofiltration,²⁹ reverse osmosis²⁶, ion exchange,^{29,30} and activated carbon adsorption,^{29,30} with activated carbon adsorption being the most widely employed treatment option.

The objectives of this research were to (1) identify and quantify the presence of legacy PFASs and emerging PFECAs in drinking water sources, (2) assess PFAS removal by conventional and advanced processes in a full-scale drinking water treatment plant (DWTP), and (3) evaluate PFAS adsorbability by powdered activated carbon (PAC).

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Materials and Methods

Water samples: Source water of three DWTPs treating surface water in the CFR watershed was sampled between June 14 and December 2, 2013 (Figure S2-in SI). Samples were collected from the raw water tap at each DWTP daily as either 8-hour composite (DWTP A, 127 samples) or 24-hour composite (DWTP B, 73 samples; DWTP C, 34 samples). Samples were collected in 250-mL HDPE bottles and picked up (DWTPs A and B) or shipped overnight (DWTP C) on a weekly basis. All samples were stored at room temperature until analysis (within 1 week of receiving receipt). PFAS losses during storage were negligible based on results of a 70-day holding study at room temperature. On August 18, 2014, grab samples were collected at DWTP C after each unit process in the treatment train (raw water ozonation, coagulation/flocculation/sedimentation, settled water ozonation, biological activated carbon (BAC) filtration, disinfection by medium pressure UV lamps and free chlorine). Operational conditions of DWTP C on the sampling day are listed in Table S2-in SI. Samples were collected in 1-L HDPE bottles and stored at room temperature until analysis. On the same day, grab samples of CFR water were collected in six 20-L HDPE carboys at William O. Huske Lock and Dam downstream of a PFAS manufacturing site and stored at 4°C until use in PAC adsorption experiments (b. Background water matrix characteristics are summarized in Table S3-in SI).

Adsorption experiments: PFAS adsorption by PAC was studied in batch reactors (amber glass bottles, 0.45 L CFR water). PFECA adsorption was studied at ambient concentrations (~1,000 ng/L PFPrOPrA, chromatographic peak areas of other PFECAs ~10-800% of the PFPrOPrA area). Legacy PFASs were present at low concentrations (<40 ng/L) and spiked into CFR water at ~1000 ng/L each. Data from spiked and non-spiked experiments showed that the methanol contribution (1 ppm) from the primary stock solution and the added legacy PFASs (4 ppm) did not affect native PFECA removal. Background water matrix characteristics are summarized in Table S3 in SI. A thermally-activated, wood-based PAC (PicaHydro MP23, PICA USA, Columbus OH, mean diameter: 12 μm , BET surface area: 1460 m^2/g)³¹ proved effective for PFAS removal in a prior study³⁰ was used at doses of 30, 60 and 100 mg/L. These doses represent the upper feasible end for drinking water treatment. Samples were taken prior to and periodically after PAC addition for PFAS analysis. PFAS losses in PAC-free blanks were negligible.

PFAS analysis: Information about analytical standards and ~~the~~ liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) methods for PFAS quantification is provided in the supporting information.

Results and Discussion

PFAS occurrence in drinking water sources: Mean PFAS concentrations in source water of three DWTPs treating surface water from the CFR watershed are shown in Figure 1. In communities A and B, only legacy PFASs were detected (mean ΣPFAS : 355 ng/L in community A, 62 ng/L in community B). Detailed concentration data are shown in Table S6 and Figure S3 ~~in SI.~~ In community A, PFCAs with 4-8 total carbons, perfluorohexane sulfonic acid (PFHxS) and PFOS were detected at median concentrations > QLs. ~~Mean and median concentrations were 44 and 29 ng/L, respectively, for PFOS, and 46 and 34 ng/L, respectively, for PFOA.~~ During the 127-day sampling campaign, the sum concentration of PFOA and PFOS exceeded the USEPA HAL of 70 ng/L on 57 days, ~~and~~ the mean sum concentration of PFOA and PFOS over the entire study period was 90 ng/L with approximately equal contributions of PFOS (44 ng/L) and PFOA (46 ng/L). Maximum PFOS and PFOA concentrations were 346 and 137 ng/L, respectively. Similar legacy PFAS PFOS and PFOA concentrations were observed in the same

area ten years ago in 2006,³² suggesting that PFAS source(s) upstream of community A have continued long-term negative impacts on drinking water quality. Also, our data show that legacy PFASs remain as surface water contaminants of concern even though their production has been recently phased out in the US. It is important to note, however, that the contribution of long-chain PFCAs to ΣPFAS shifted from long-chain (70% C₈F₁₇COOH, n>7) in 2006 to short-chain (70% C₄F₉COOH, n=3-6) in 2013. In contrast, the PFOS contribution to ΣPFAS remained the same (13%). Relating total PFAS concentration to average daily stream flow (Figure S4 in SI) illustrated a general trend of low PFAS concentrations at high flow and high concentrations at low flow, consistent with the hypothesis of upstream point source(s).

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In community B, perfluorobutanoic acid (PFBA) and perfluoropentanoic acid (PFPeA) were the most frequently detected, with mean concentrations of 12 and 19 ng/L, respectively. Mean and median PFOA and PFOS concentrations were <QL, and the maximum sum concentration of PFOA and PFOS was 59 ng/L. Lower PFAS concentrations in community B relative to community A can be explained by the absence of substantive PFAS sources between the two communities, dilution by tributaries, and the buffering effect of Jordan Lake, a large reservoir located between communities A and B.

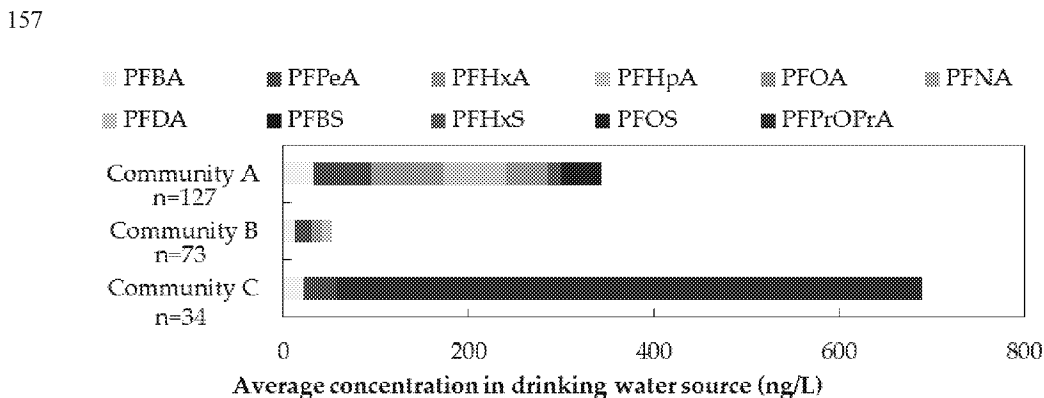


Figure 1. PFAS occurrence at drinking water intakes in the CFR watershed. Concentrations represent averages of samples collected between June and December 2013. Individual samples with concentrations < QLs were considered as 0 when calculating averages, and average concentrations < QLs were not plotted.

In community C (downstream of a PFAS manufacturing site), legacy PFAS concentrations were low, and only mean (and median) concentrations of PFBA and PFPeA were >QLs. The relatively low concentrations of legacy PFASs in the finished drinking water of community C are consistent with data reported from this DWTP in the third unregulated contaminant monitoring rule (UCMR3) conducted by USEPA.³³ However, high concentrations of PFPrOPrA were detected (up to ~4500 ng/L). The average PFPrOPrA concentration (631 ng/L) was approximately eight times the average summed PFCA and PFSA concentrations (79 ng/L). Other PFECAs had not yet been identified at the time of analysis. Similar to communities A and B, the highest PFAS concentrations for community C were also observed at low flow (Figure S3 in SI). Stream flow data were used in conjunction with PFPrOPrA concentration data to determine PFPrOPrA mass fluxes at the DWTP intake of community C. Daily mass fluxes ranged from 0.6-24 kg PFPrOPrA/d with a mean value of 5.9 kg PFPrOPrA/d.

PFAS fate in conventional and advanced water treatment processes: To investigate whether PFASs can be removed from impacted source water, samples from DWTP C were collected at the intake and after each treatment step. Results in Figure 2 suggest conventional and advanced treatment processes (coagulation/flocculation/sedimentation, raw and settled water ozonation, BAC filtration, disinfection by medium pressure UV lamps and free chlorine) did not remove legacy PFASs, consistent with previous studies.²³⁻²⁷ The data further illustrate that no measurable PFECA removal occurred in this DWTP. Concentrations of some PFCAs, PFSAs, PFMOPrA, PFPrOPrA and PFMOAA may have increased after ozonation, possibly due to the oxidation of precursor compounds.²⁶ Disinfection with medium pressure UV lamps and free chlorine (located between BAC effluent and the finished water) may have decreased concentrations of PFMOAA, PFMOPrA, PFMOBA and PFPrOPrA, but only to a limited extent. Alternatively, small concentration changes between treatment processes may be related to temporal changes in source water PFAS concentrations that occurred in the time frame corresponding to the hydraulic residence time of the DWTP.

Results in Figure 2 further illustrate that the PFAS signature of the August 2014 samples was similar to the mean PFAS signature observed during the 2013 sampling campaigns shown in

194 Figure 1; i.e., PFPrOPrA concentrations (400-500 $\mu\text{g/L}$) greatly exceeded legacy PFAS
 195 concentrations. Moreover, three PFECAs (PFMOAA, PFO2HxA and PFO3OA)¹¹ had peak areas
 196 2-113 times greater than that of PFPrOPrA (Figure 2b). The existence of high levels of emerging
 197 PFASs suggests the necessity of incorporating them into routine monitoring.
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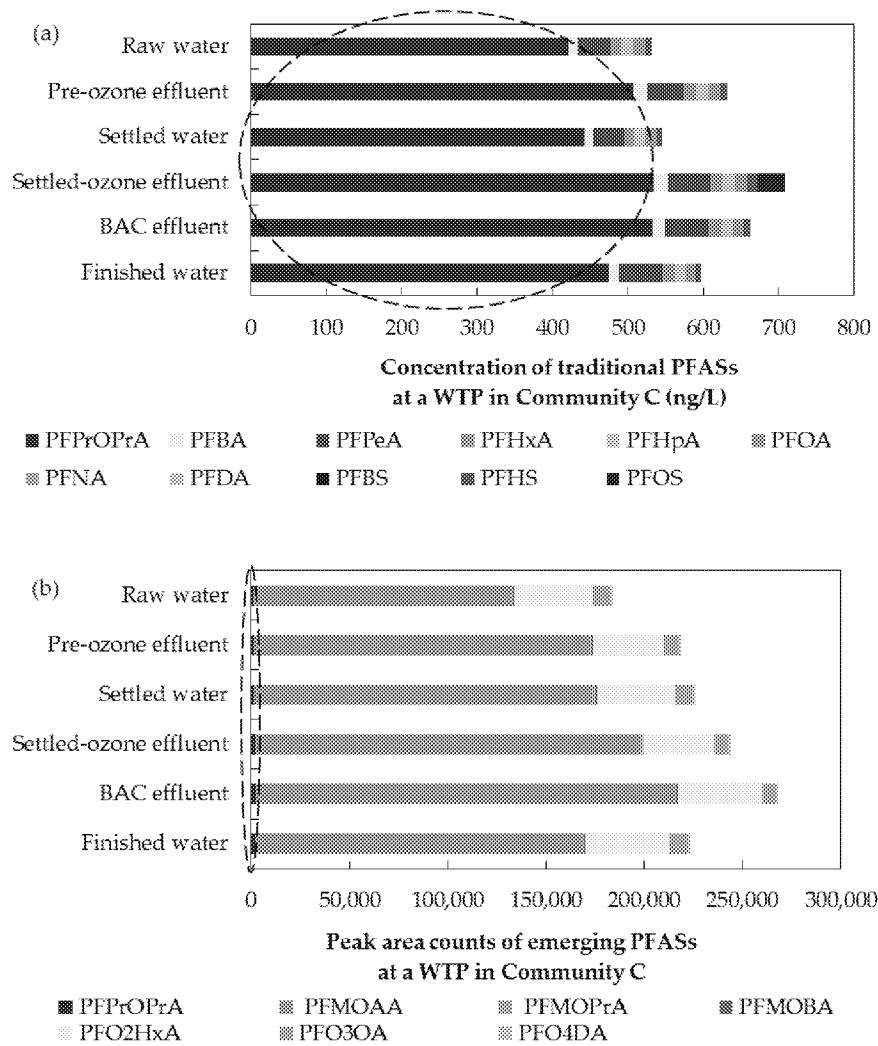


Figure 2. Fate of (a) legacy PFASs and PFPrOPrA and (b) PFECAs through a full-scale water treatment plant. Because authentic standards were not available for emerging PFECAs, chromatographic peak area counts are shown in panel b. PFPrOPrA data are shown in both panels and highlighted in dashed ovals for reference. Compounds with concentrations <QL were not plotted.

PFAS adsorption by PAC: PAC can effectively remove long-chain PFCAs and PFSAs, but its effectiveness decreases with decreasing PFAS chain length.^{25, 26, 30} It is unclear, however, how the presence of ether group(s) in PFECAs impacts adsorbability. After a contact time of 1 hour, a PAC dose of 100 mg/L achieved >80% removal of legacy PFCAs with carbon chain length ≥ 7 . At a PAC dose of 60 mg/L, >80% removal was achieved for PFCAs with carbon chain length ≥ 8 over the same time. At a the same PAC dose of 100 mg/L, removals were 95% for PFO4DA and 54% for PFO3OA, but <40% for other PFECAs. Detailed removal percentage data as a function of PAC contact time are shown in Figure S5-4a-8f. ~~There was no meaningful removal of PFMOBA and PFMOPrA, and the variability shown in Figure S5 is most likely associated with analytical variability. There was no meaningful removal for either PFMOBA or PFMOPrA, and the concentration variation was caused by the fluctuation of analytical methods. Thus, the removal of both compounds should be considered zero.~~ PFMOAA could not be quantified by the analytical method used in this test; however, based on the observations that PFAS adsorption decreases with decreasing carbon chain length and that PFECAs with one or two ~~more additional~~ carbon atoms than PFMOAA (i.e., PFMOPrA and PFMOBA) ~~were poorly adsorbed exhibited negligible by PAC removal~~ (Figure 3), it is expected that PFMOAA adsorption is ~~also~~ negligible at the tested conditions.

To compare the affinity of different PFASs for PAC, the PFAS removal percentages in solution were plotted as a function of PFAS chain length (the sum of carbon (including branched), ether oxygen, and sulfur atoms) (Figure 3(b)). The adsorbability of both legacy and emerging PFASs increased with increasing chain length. PFSAs were more readily removed than PFCAs of matching chain length, which agrees with previous studies.^{25, 26, 30} PFECAs exhibited lower adsorbabilities than PFCAs of the same chain length (e.g. PFMOBA < PFHxA), suggesting that the replacement of a CF₂ group with an ether oxygen atom decreases the affinity of PFASs for PAC. However, the replacement of additional CF₂ groups with ether groups resulted in small or

negligible affinity changes among the studied PFECAAs (e.g., PFMOBA~PFO2HxA). Alternatively, if only the number of perfluorinated carbons were considered as a basis of comparing adsorbability, the interpretation would be different. In that case, with the same number of perfluorinated carbons, PFCAs have a higher affinity for PAC than mono-ether PFECAAs (e.g., PFPeA>PFMOBA), but a lower affinity than multi-ether PFECAAs (e.g., PFPeA<PFO3OA).

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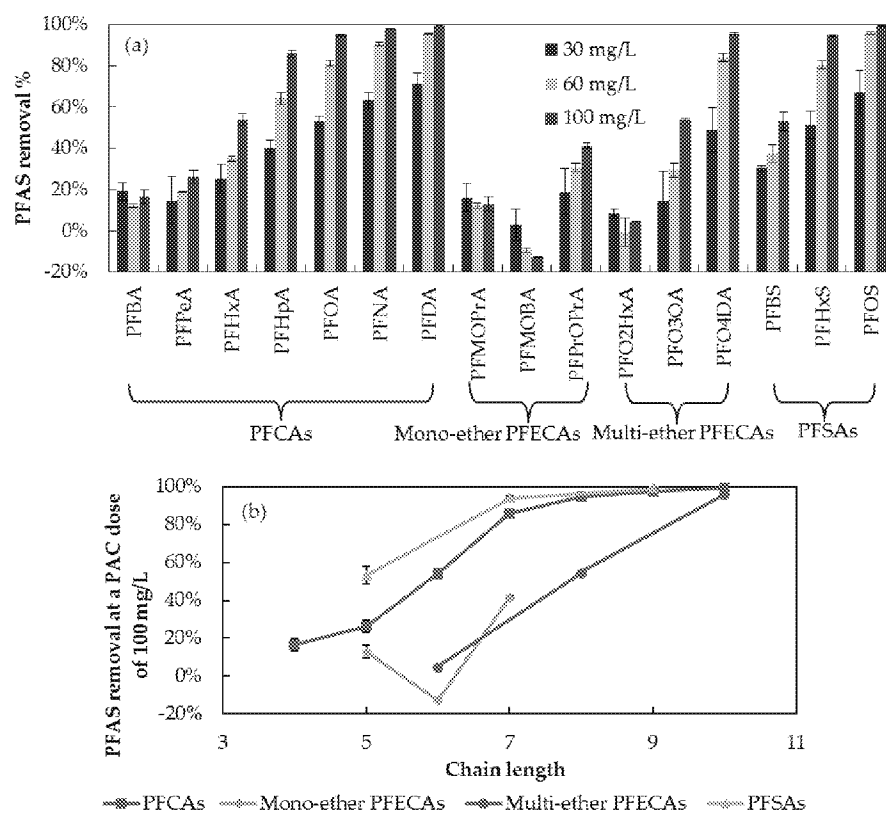


Figure 3. PFAS adsorption on PAC (a) at carbon doses of 30, 60 and 100 mg/L and (b) as a function of PFAS chain length. PAC contact time in CFR water was 1 hour. Legacy PFASs were spiked at ~1000 ng/L and the emerging PFASs were at ambient concentrations. Figures show average PFAS removal percentages, and error bars show one standard deviation of replicate experiments.

In either framework, it is clear that the presence of ether groups in PFECAs changes their propensity to leave the aqueous phase and adsorb on PAC. It can thus be inferred that the incorporation of ether groups changes physicochemical properties, such as the octanol-water partition coefficient and aqueous solubility of PFECAs relative to PFECAs. Consequently, it is reasonable to expect that fate and transport of PFECAs in natural and engineered systems will differ from that of legacy PFECAs. For example, while PFPrOPrA ("GenX") may be less bioaccumulative than PFOA, which it is replacing, the adsorption data here suggest PFPrOPrA is less hydrophobic than PFOA. Thus, when released to the environment, PFPrOPrA has a higher tendency to remain in the aqueous phase and is more difficult to remove from drinking water sources by adsorptive means.

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To the knowledge of the authors, this is the first paper reporting the behavior of recently identified PFECAs in water treatment processes. We further show that legacy PFASs continue to be a concern in the upper reaches of the CFR basin, and that PFECAs are an important class of fluorinated alternatives that dominated the PFAS signature in a drinking water source downstream of a fluorochemical manufacturer and that PFECA removal by many conventional and advanced treatment processes was negligible. The relatively low concentrations of legacy PFASs in the finished drinking water of community C are consistent with data reported from this DWTP in the third unregulated contaminant monitoring rule (UCMR3) conducted by USEPA³³. Our adsorption data further show that PFPrOPrA ("GenX") is less adsorbable than PFOA, which it is replacing. Thus, while the bioelimination rate of PFPrOPrA is more rapid than that of PFOA, PFPrOPrA is also difficult to remove from drinking water sources by adsorptive means. However, the detection of potentially high levels of PFECAs, the continued presence of high levels of legacy PFASs, and the difficulty to in effectively removing not only legacy PFASs but also and PFECAs with many water treatment processes, suggest the need for broader discharge control and contaminant monitoring.

270 **Acknowledgement**

271 This research was supported by the National Science Foundation (Award # 1550222), the Water
272 Research Foundation (Project 4344), and the North Carolina Urban Water Consortium.

273 Notes

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274 The views expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the
275 views or policies of the USEPA.

276 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

278 **Supporting Information Available**

279 The following information is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>: 4 Six
280 tables, five figures, information about PFASs, analytical methods, and detailed results description
281 of analytical standards and PFAS quantification, PFASs detected in the CFR watershed,
282 operational conditions of DWTP-C on sampling day, water quality characteristics of surface
283 water used in adsorption tests, LC gradient method for PFAS analysis, MS transitions for PFAS
284 Analysis, maximum, minimum, mean and median concentrations (ng/L) of PFASs in CFR
285 watershed surface water as drinking water sources, molecular structures of PFPCAs in this study,
286 sampling sites in the CFR watershed, PFAS concentration distributions in the CFR watershed at
287 three drinking water intakes, total PFAS concentrations in the source water and stream flow at
288 the three studied DWTPs, and PFAS adsorption on PAC.

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on other statements I have seen in ES&T Letters.

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